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The Guidance Study

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THE GUIDANCE STUDY

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THE GUIDANCE STUDY

A statement of objectives, basic points of view, special hypotheses, data sought, and procedures followed or to be followed in the future, and sample findings.

Prepared by Jean Walker Macfarlane

I. Objectives

A major objective of the Child Guidance Study has been to portray the course of development of numerous specific aspects of personality, and to investigate relationships between behavior patterns and other variables. The behavior patterns which have been studied include both adaptive and maladaptive characteristics. The other variables include, or are based upon, measures of physical status; physical growth patterns; the child's intelligence and rate of intellectual development; socio-economic measures and other aspects of the child's physical environment; data pertaining to the personality characteristics of parents and siblings and of inter-personal relationships in the home; and data pertaining to the school and social environment.

A second objective has been to study in a normal group of children the frequency, persistence, severity, and dynamics of specific maladjustive behavior, by age and by sex, and to discover the relationships of earlier and later manifestations of problems. These facts are of direct interest and will further serve as a check upon the generalizations made from the studies of pathological samples which have dominated the literature on personality.

A third, and perhaps the most important, aspect of the study is to add to our knowledge of the critical differentials whereby some individuals give up or modify early infantile patterns and develop mature, sturdy and effective personalities, while others rigidly and neurotically cling to immature and ineffectual patterns or disintegratingly revert to them.

A fourth aim has been to compare the persistence of specific maladjustive behavior (stammering, fears, etc.) in a group subjected to guidance procedures and in a group equated but unguided.

Lastly, a more articulate and refined methodology has been sought in the field of personality investigation.

II. Basic points of view and special questions to be answered

In a pioneering stage of a discipline where a small body of ordered facts exist, it is difficult to have neat and clean-cut hypotheses susceptible of final proof, disproof, or explicit modification. When this pioneering stage is in a field as complex and multifactor as personality dynamics, concise (and thereby limited) hypotheses failing to take account of large areas of interactive factors often involve relationships so far out of dynamic context that little of permanent value accrues. The other extreme of practice, quantitative fact-finding procedures predicated upon no discoverable criteria of fact-sampling, remain essentially unintegrated even after elaborate statistical attempts to induce integration.

The working philosophy of the Guidance Study has led to an attempt to utilize wide arrays of facts with concise formulations of questions to be answered. Clinical experience, concerned with the dynamic interactions of individuals, has pointed the conviction that the explanation of personality development, personality success or failure, will come from a rather broad sampling of facts, articulated in a fashion that their interactions may be observed, weighted and evaluated. Clinical experience before the study began and after the study was undertaken has brought the conviction that certain areas of interaction are more important than others and are therefore areas to be sampled extensively and intensively. The evidence from the first ten years of this study points to the fact that certain configurations of biological and environmental factors tend to produce a fairly smoothly functioning personality; other configurations, a disturbed or disordered one. The combination of experience, ten years of empirical findings, careful analyses of findings, and even wishful thinking has left so many questions still unanswered, however, that the clinic cannot as yet subscribe to a closed theoretical system. We have been organized around a simple and obvious structure which eclectically admits of any methodological attack that offers promise of yielding information in what appear as pertinent areas of interaction. It will be apparent in section III what areas are regarded as important, and within the limits of our techniques and our budget.

We shall present first our general notions on personality dynamics and second, certain specific hypotheses which have emerged.

THEORY OF THE EARTH AND ITS HISTORY

The theory of the earth and its history is a branch of geology which deals with the origin and development of the earth and its various parts. It is a science which seeks to explain the processes which have shaped the earth and its features. The theory of the earth and its history is based on the study of the earth's rocks and fossils, and on the principles of geology. It is a science which is constantly developing, as new discoveries are made and new theories are proposed. The theory of the earth and its history is a branch of geology which deals with the origin and development of the earth and its various parts. It is a science which seeks to explain the processes which have shaped the earth and its features. The theory of the earth and its history is based on the study of the earth's rocks and fossils, and on the principles of geology. It is a science which is constantly developing, as new discoveries are made and new theories are proposed.

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The basic mechanism of biologic life is adjustive activity. The organism in disequilibrium (i.e. when stimulated) is characterized by immediate activity which continues until equilibrium is restored. The need for adjustment depends upon disequilibrium; the manner of adjustment depends upon the structure and past habits of the organism, the nature of the stimulation from which it seeks relief and the restrictions imposed by the environment. Personality is regarded as the flux of these adjustive activities in a given but constantly modified psycho-biological organism.

These adjustive attempts of the organism may be via simple chain reflex routes, by learned and patterned routes, or when due to sudden intense or prolonged stimulation, by diffuse activity or when blocked, by indirect compulsive routes. These adjustive attempts may be internalized or externalized, episodic or recurrent. If recurrent and overt enough to be observed, they are given names such as tempers or shyness. If recurrent and pervasive enough that "trends" or attitudes are inferred, the term personality pattern or trait is applied. These adjustive attempts may be damaging or beneficial to the well-being of the organism, acceptable or unacceptable to the social environment. But regardless of how stabilized the patterns or how diffuse the activities, they represent adjustive devices to seek equilibrium, to satisfy needs, to side-step or placate pressures. No matter how mediated, described, or evaluated, this flux is a series of resultants of what the individual has had to adjust with and what he has had to adjust to.

With this simple and basic concept in mind, let us next turn our attention to a more explicit inspection of these interacting aspects--the organism, the pressures put upon it, and the adaptive processes involved.

The organism. A comparative study of human beings, or of any species, shows communality of structure which makes for communality of needs, response patterns, and susceptibility to stimulation. Superimposed upon this communality is a large array of individual differences which make for differing susceptibilities to stimulation, differing needs and differing response patterns. Whether these differences are in large part a function of heredity and maturational processes, or in large part a function of modification of basic structure by health, special experiences or differing environmental pressures and assaults, they exist and must be inspected along with common structure in terms of their meaning to the adjustive process. If

differences are stressed in what follows, it is because (1) a study of differences includes a study of communalities, and because (2) differences are more apt to incur differential responses from the social environment and therefore have an added meaning in the adjustive process.

Differences exist in morphology, size and rates of growth, muscular equipment, nervous reactivity, sensory acuity, energy level, achievements, tensional states (directly organic and produced by conflicting reaction patterns), etc. Not only are there specific differences, but differences in configurations of equipment occur which have differing influences both upon susceptibility to stimulation and upon response patternings. The child who is at either end of the distribution curve has not only different organic stresses to contend with than the child in the middle of the distribution--a fact which may influence behavior appreciably--but he may also develop totally different attitudes and reaction patterns toward himself through continuous comparisons with the group. And, additionally, because certain behavior is precluded or fostered for him by these facts of equipment, he may receive differential treatment by the social environment and an even larger discrepancy in behavior may appear than these structural differences (in and of themselves) would produce.

Take, for example, the undersized boy who may be small via the genes, or as a result of a pituitary disorder. If he has a father who played guard on his college football team and had high hopes for a son who would carry on tradition, the boy's size has a markedly different adjustive aspect than if his father were an armchair intellectual who wanted his son to become a college professor. If his sibs are much larger than he and have athletic interests, he has a very different adjustive picture than if he has small non-athletically interested sibs. Similarly with respect to the equipment and values of playmates, his adjustment needs show wide variations. His size, then, takes on meaning in terms of (1) the other aspects of his structural equipment; (2) in terms of the size of people with whom he is closely associated; (3) in terms of family and social expectancies and values connected with size or achievement dependent on size, values which tend to influence him or become his own; (4) in terms of the adequacy of other family and social supports; and (5) in terms of the success of direct or compensatory achievements which do not depend on size. In addition to this, his size changes at varying rates--very fast in the early post-natal months, more steadily from around three to eleven or twelve, then fast again during the so-called adolescent

spurt. His vulnerability may vary in a fast-growing or slow-growing period because of physiological changes, or new adjustments to learn with and to his changing equipment, or because of new attitudes and pressures from outside to which he must adjust.

And so similarly for other aspects of equipment, varied meanings to the individual depend upon the dynamic context. Especially important are these meanings where variability in structure precipitates behavior which conflicts with mores. Take, for example, variability in sexual maturity. The child of marked precocity, marked retardation, or atypical development not only has variant behavior precipitated directly, but he may be subjected to marked disapproval which results in hostility, defiance or guilt feelings with subsequent compulsive releases, internalized tensions, or a variety of defence patterns.

It is obvious in the light of our basic concept of psychobiological adjustment that we need to inspect structure in context--similar structures in similar and dissimilar contexts, dissimilar structures in similar and dissimilar contexts, if we are to evaluate certain contributions of structure or structure configurations to personality.

The pressures upon the organism

Just as there are communalities and differences in structure, so too we find communalities and differences in pressures--internal and external--which impinge upon the organism and precipitate the need for and contribute to the manner of adjustive activities. To have meaning these stimulus pressures must be looked at in the context of the organism's vulnerability or threshold of response at different levels of development, with differing past experiences and different response habits. One cannot catalogue all the pressures that call for adjustment, but certain important pressure areas will be mentioned.

Family pressures involve adjustment to different family members with their common and unique personality characteristics, the behavior, security, or tensions growing out of their inter-personal adjustments, their variant behavior under varying conditions and moods, their compatible or non-compatible values, expectations, and training techniques. These pressures offer a continuous, complex, and varying stimulus flux to the child in the early period of intimate dependency. He not only has to adjust to them individually but in various combinations which may alter

the direction of pressure. For example spinach in front of a child with just his mother present means he merely has to toy at it, spinach plus mother plus father means he has to eat it all promptly, spinach plus father alone means he has to try it at least, spinach plus mother plus father plus brother who is making noises at the table means he may not have to eat any of it. Further, his family members not only stimulate him to activity, but additionally they bring further pressures to bear on the form of the response activity which they will tolerate. One further confusion is that the same person may be a stimulus to antagonistic or ambivalent response patterns. The very nature of training sets up restrictions and demands which thwart by deferring satisfaction and make for at least low grade anger or resistance. In the usual family set-up the inducer of anger or resistance responses is also the person who by affectionate contact and by satisfying needs brings relaxing friendly responses. This basic situational stimulation to conflict of responses, without suitable channeling of patterns to release the conflicting responses appears an important factor in later ambivalences in intimate contacts. For a child who has successful response patterns established, the stimulus situation may suddenly shift by the birth of a younger sibling, the death or separation of parents, the arrival of a grandparent to live in the home, etc.

When school begins and the child spends more hours away from home, family pressure may be less potent, except where conflicts between family mores and school mores occur. During adolescence, it is conceivable that even with a wider social pressure at work, family pressure may become even more acute for several reasons. With the advent of the child's sexual maturity, the parent is susceptible to easy flare-ups of his own adolescent insecurities and anxieties, resulting in more tensions in his relationship to his child. With the adolescent's awakening interest in the opposite sex, the parent undergoes deprivation of certain libidinal satisfactions which have given him support, security and a function, and because of this deprivation, he may behave differently to his child and create for him new adjustive problems. Additionally, the unsteady or ambivalent drive by the adolescent upon his parents for both freedom and security may provoke ambivalent behavior in the parent. The further parental anxiety over the limited time left for "moulding" the child for professional or social accomplishment may make for more intense and persistent pressure during this period. The effect on the adolescent of living out or failing to live out parental expectations may or may not be

suitable to the adolescent's needs and if unsuitable, may easily result in hostility, erratic behavior, or defeatist patterns. All of this intensification of pressure may be occurring at a vulnerable period--not only physiologically, but socially and because in his new need for intimacy the adolescent may be baffled and chagrined by the reactivation of old patterns associated with intimacy during his very early dependent years.

Social pressures

Similarly social pressures and pressures from the school, etc. might be detailed in terms of their meaning to the child. For the adolescent, pressure from what the Freudians call the super-ego (values of the family and the culture, which have been taken over and internalized as attitudes) comes into more prominent play and calls for adjustive behavior which may be in conflict with parental expectations or biological needs.

That out of this heterogeneity of stimulations fairly stable or characteristic personality patterns emerge, appears to us due much more to certain stable and fairly constant pressures than to chance episodes. And, therefore, a detailed account of pressures becomes an important aspect for the understanding of personality dynamics. However, highly traumatic episodes at certain critical periods may alter the organism's vulnerability, disrupt successful patterns, or make them ineffective in changed conditions.

The adaptive processes involved

A brief statement follows on the nature and mechanisms of the adaptive processes. We see simple and direct adjustive activity where the behavior removes the stimulus --e.g. hair falling over the eyes is pushed back. If such activity occurs repeatedly enough, it may develop into tic-like patterns which*persist even after the original stimulus is removed. We see direct adjustive behavior where the organism removes itself from the stimulus situation. This may involve physical or psychological withdrawal as in the case of a child who "fails to hear" the constant nagging or moralizing of a parent. Or the simple direct response--e.g. eating when hungry, changes the reactivity of the organism and restores equilibrium.

Diffuse or massive adjustive behavior (e.g. where there is heavy emotional involvement) occurs in response to (1) sudden or violent or cumulative stimulation, to

(2) thwarting of organic drives, conflict of drives, or thwarting of old response patterns, and to (3) failure of old response patterns to bring solutions and thereby restore equilibrium.

Indirect or substitute response patterns are evolved when direct ones fail. Of this order are distractive activities, which shut out the conflict--e.g. busy work, misbehavior, reading detective stories, physical activities, etc. These may be so recurrent as to become highly stabilized patterns, useful or unproductive in themselves, yet essentially they are adjustive attempts. Solutions may be sought via complicated withdrawal patterns--timidity, negativism, phantasy, fears, somatic preoccupations, the building up of inhibitory super-ego values, and in extreme cases in schizophrenic withdrawal. Solutions may be channeled into projected rationalizations, such as gossiping, blaming parents, circumstances, heredity, the government, fate, and in extreme forms in systematized paranoid reactions. Compensatory activities may be set up--e.g. mental superiority for physical inadequacy, bullying behavior to compensate for cowardly feelings, martyred service for hostility, etc. Many of the compensatory patterns bring the support of achievement, many bring disapproval which adds to tension. It becomes important for the understanding of personality to know the laws of learning that mediate both successful and unsuccessful channeling of response patterns and personality trends. The major emphasis must be, however, in terms of what adjustive needs an individual's behavior is attempting to satisfy.

Special hypotheses

Implicit in every correlation and in every clinical comparison is an hypothesis or a question. Out of the myriad possibilities of relationships we have sought to inspect those about which we had some clinical guesses and needed further evidence. Many hypotheses (relative to general trends) we have had to discard or alter, although clinically they appear to be operative in particular persons. Many of our guesses have had to be modified or restricted or new attacks made which would yield more explicit information. In that which follows only samples here and there can be offered from the array of specific hypotheses we have checked among the data of these earlier years, or hope to check in the future.

Some specific hypotheses which we hope to check:

Comparison of configurations of biological and environmental factors will furnish more significant evidence for differentials in personality dynamics or structure than those obtained from comparisons of single variables.

But certain patterns of behavior, externalized and internalized, are more heavily weighted by physiological factors than situational ones, others are largely habits growing out of the pressures from external factors.

Examples leaning toward physiological weighting:

Low energy level and mucous membrane irritability (e.g. gastro-intestinal irritability and dysfunction) at the early periods are heavily weighted factors in internalized and withdrawn trends of response. We have evidence in individual cases of highly ruminative and hypochondriacal trends in this combination of physical findings, which we intend to compare in these respects with the evidence from highly externalized cases. And conversely, high energy level and peripheral irritability--e.g. in skin allergies--are important factors in externalized patterning. Periods of rapid growth or rapidly altering structure are periods of greater vulnerability--the focus of vulnerability being different for the early preschool period and the later adolescent period.

Examples leaning toward situational weighting:

Certain response patterns associated with intimate personal contacts built up in the early periods of physical dependence--affectional, hostile, tearful, etc.--are critical ones for successful or unsuccessful psycho-sexual adjustments at maturity. Intense, unconscious, and unsolved ambivalent drives in parent-child relationships and the results from straining marital adjustments are associated with anxiety trends and compulsive or explosive behavior in children.

Being an older child in a pair is conducive to different patterning than being a younger child. For example we have evidence for the period before ten that other factors being similar the older of a pair of boys, if ages are within 2 or 3 years, is much more apt to be insecure in social relationships, the younger insecure about his intellectual ability.

The presence of stimuli which set off antagonistic response tendencies is an important factor in anxiety and guilt feelings, and in the building up of rigid super-ego values to stabilize the socially approved response (as for example the anger vs. affection responses to the same person or the responses from biological drives vs. the responses from social pressures).

III. Program of data collection

The sample--252 children and their respective families--was arbitrarily selected upon the basis of every third birth (January 1928 to July 1, 1929) in Berkeley, California. Two groups (126 in each), a guided and an unguided control-group equated on the basis of socio-economic findings, have been followed for ten years. Active cases now included are 115 families in the guidance group, 103 cases in the control group.

Nature of this study: Essentially clinical in nature, this undertaking differs from other clinical studies in two major respects. It has attempted cumulative observation of contemporaneously developing adjustments and maladjustments in a normal sample. The usual clinical procedure has been to attempt to unravel the antecedents of already developed maladjusted behavior, in a so-called "problem group."

Several panels of investigation were undertaken:

1. Pre- and circumnatal data (for both groups).
Not cumulative.
2. Systematic cumulative records of health, regime, and physical growth--physical examinations, anthropometric measurements, developmental x-rays, and photographs (for both groups). This is to be continued and supplemented with more intensive medical and laboratory examinations on certain extreme or atypical cases.
3. Systematic records of mental development (for both groups); to be continued in modified dosage.
4. Systematic records (for the guidance group) of the development of behavior attitudes and personality patterning as seen through the eyes of parents, siblings, teachers, classmates, the child himself, and the clinic staff. In the early years the

parents were the major informants; later when the child became more articulate, much more came from him. Still later, teacher and classmate opinions were available. Interview material and indirect methods both have been used.

Systematic but superficial inventories of behavior and personality patterns (for the control group) from parents. Teacher and classmate material similar for both groups.

The program to be continued with modification in certain techniques, somewhat reduced schedules of interview with children, more observations in school and recreational situations, further elaborations of indirect techniques--psychoanalytical, drawings, picture associations, etc. From all children will be secured systematically certain material via psycho-analytical techniques. Additionally it is planned to select a small number of children of differing personality types, for more intensive psycho-analytical procedures.

5. Systematic records of physical and psychological environment, including the home and its personalities, the teacher, classmates, playmates, and neighborhood facilities and pressures (guidance group, and on school aspects both groups). To be continued and at some time during this period one set of intensive interviews on family situations and interpersonal relationships to be secured on the control group. A further small extension of program, not as yet clearly formulated: small group discussions with our parents to get at, by a different technique than personal interview, what seem to be frequent bafflements of the parents of adolescents.

IV. Program of data analysis

The data analysis in this cumulative study of personality development presents three major fronts of complexity. The first is due to the varieties of techniques used in obtaining the data in the several panels of investigation. The second source of complexity is occasioned by the extensiveness of items tapped in each panel. The third grows out of the fact that the data are obtained over a long time span.

Our philosophy of data organization and presentation has been to combine if we could the assets of the two

conventional methods--case history and statistical analysis. We have attempted to keep as close to our clinical facts as possible (which seems to be the major merit of the case history presentation) and at the same time to use statistical devices which so organize findings that some degree of generalization is possible. We have not expected to establish statistically high one-to-one relationships in this multifactor field of personality. But we do hope to be able to state statistically that some constitutional and health factors show higher relationships to certain behavior problems than do certain environmental pressures--and that the opposite is true for certain other behavior patterns (we already have considerable evidence on this for the early levels). And we do hope to discover certain patterns of concomitancy of which some may vary with age and maturity, some with home and social pressure and some may continue irrespective of these, and therefore appear essentially constitutional.

We have been forced to experiment with statistical techniques to find those most suitable to the effective analysis of our clinical material. This has involved direct utilization and modification of established techniques and the seeking of new techniques, especially needed in those areas where simple statement will not suffice to express the complicated patterns and through-time relationships which are found.

Analysis within the several panels

Certain steps have been systematically attempted in each of the panels of investigation:

1. The quantifying of clinical material (interview, observation, and test material). For interview and observational material, this involved the development of a more precise vocabulary, and of codes based on descriptive continua of specified behavior or conditions--continua on which degrees of intensity or kind could be demarcated.
2. An assessment of the reliability of material to be used statistically. The techniques used for these assessments have, of course, varied with the type of data and the methods employed in obtaining them. When measurement was employed (e.g. anthropometrics and mental tests) conventional reliability determinations could be made. In interview material, several approaches were necessary: e.g. the consistency of reports from the same informants; the

agreement among informants (teacher with child, classmate with teacher, parent with child, etc.); agreement among clinic staff members (tester with tester, interviewer with interviewer). Only where the reliability warranted it, was the material used statistically to determine relationships.

3. Group findings

- (a) Distributions and interrelationships at each age level.
- (b) Interrelationships over time--a measure of prediction.
- (c) Trends of the group through time for the various items considered.
- (d) Changing interrelationships through time.

4. Individual findings

- (a) The individual's trends in comparison with group trends.
- (b) The individual's trend with respect to himself (e.g. percentage increments in physical growth, comparison of later to previous behavior or personality patterns).

Analysis of relationships between data obtained from different panels

We are making exploratory attempts to find fruitful methods of showing and stating relationships between panels. This is being done in terms of: (a) cross section interrelationships between single measures and between composites; and (b) in some analyses we have attempted to show trends in relationship through time.

We are just beginning to attempt a study of multi-panel relationships by getting "clusters" or "profiles" of relationships. Exploratory findings to date suggest this as a very fruitful method of analysis and presentation. We shall study clusters including (a) behavior manifestations, (b) biological findings, and (c) environmental pressures, to throw light on the varying weightings of constitutional versus environmental factors at different ages with respect to adjustive patterns.

Our statistical programs in the future will follow along the same lines if they continue to appear fruitful. Our case history analyses will be further emphasized by a

comparison of summaries prepared by a psycho-analytically trained worker with those of an eclectic non-psychoanalyst.

It is hoped that by these varieties of approach to data analysis--statistical, psycho-analytical, and biographical--that more sharpened and more fruitful generalizations will be possible than by the use of any one method alone.

V. Sample Findings

A. Frequency and persistency of problem behavior during the preschool years*

We have found that no normal child is completely free of adjustive devices that get labeled as "problem behavior"--the average number varying during the preschool years from four to six per child.

Frequency was found to vary with age for most problems. Soiling, diurnal and nocturnal enuresis decreased with age and were eliminated in the order named; whereas constipation showed no trends with respect to age. Masturbation and restlessness in sleep showed no trends with age for the preschool period. Thumb-sucking decreased as nail-biting increased. Tempers, fears, jealousy, oversensitiveness increased to around 4 to 4½ years and then began subsiding. Since temper tantrums, fears, and overt jealousy occur at one age level in more than 50% of our children, they cannot sensibly be regarded as neurotic behavior as so commonly assumed, but rather as evidence of tension or as adjustive devices.

There is some evidence that certain patterns tend to fall into clusters.** For example, at year five quarrelsomeness, mood swings, negativism, irritability, temper tantrums, jealousy, and competitiveness show similar degrees of relationship to other problems, a cluster suggesting a labile or disturbed organism. Another cluster suggestive of a child who is psychologically withdrawn and below par physically--withdrawing, introverted, submissive,

* Data analysis by H. S. Conrad.

** The method of cluster analysis will be described in a forthcoming publication by R. C. Tryon. The cluster analysis was done by Claire Myers.

shy, somber, and excessively reserved--is closely associated with underactivity.

B. Physical condition, size, rate of growth*

We found many children showing defensive patterns to exceptional size, and over-reactive patterning to continuously irritating physical conditions. For example, the youngsters with hives and eczema were more apt to show irritable or temper responses than youngsters completely free from such conditions.

Wide individual differences were found in physical condition, size, rates of growth; in particular, the oversized girl and the undersized boy seemed to have a larger adjustive problem than those who fell in the middle of the distribution.

We discovered that during the preschool years physical measurements had more prognostic value than mental measures. For example the correlation of height at 21 months with height at 60 months was .80; weight at 21 months with weight at 60 months .72; whereas mental tests at 21 months with mental tests at 60 months was only .32.

A preliminary analysis of the relationship of physiological status to specific problems shows interesting results. For the preschool period certain problems appear much more closely related to poor physiological status than do others. For example, elimination problems, eating difficulties, nailbiting, overdependence, and negativism show for both the guidance and control groups, and for the different age levels, more recruits from poor physiological status. On the other hand, thumbsucking, overactivity, lying, and fears have a few more recruits from children with better than average physiological status. Tempers and jealousy get as many recruits from good as from poor physiological status, and seem much more related to psychological factors than to physiological ones.

C. Intelligence**

Wide individual differences were found not only in intellectual status, but also in growth rates among

* Data collection under direction of H. R. Stolz; data analysis by M. P. Honzik.

** Mental tests made largely by Lucille Allen, G. V. Sheviakov, Adele Jaffa; data analysis by M.P. Honzik.

The first part of the report is devoted to a general description of the work done during the year. It is followed by a detailed account of the various projects undertaken, and a summary of the results obtained.

The second part of the report is devoted to a detailed account of the various projects undertaken, and a summary of the results obtained. It is followed by a summary of the results obtained.

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children of similar I.Q. The prognostic significance of mental-test scores was poor for the pre-school years, but increased with age (due possibly in part to the introduction of better continua of test items). The following correlations for three 3-year periods illustrate the increasing predictive significance of mental tests among older children.

Correlation between mental scores at		
2 years and 5 years	$r =$.32
3 years and 6 years	$r =$.66
5 years and 8 years	$r =$.70

Inspection of the individual curves of mental test performance showed marked variations, some children rising with respect to the group, some falling, and some showing a steady group placement. For example, between 21 months and six years one child rose steadily from a percentile rank of 1 to 90 - or an I.Q. rise of from 80 to 135; another child rose from an I.Q. 89 to an I.Q. 170. Another child dropped steadily (5 or 6 I.Q. points per test administration) from an I.Q. 112 at 21 months to an I.Q. 70 at 6 years. In this last case, intensive investigation of physical and physiological factors has yielded no explanation of the drop.

Relationships of intelligence to personality and behavior problems were much smaller than those found in the case of either physiological condition or family influences. Excessive dependence, speech difficulties (largely enunciation) and enuresis are recruited from the lower I.Q. levels, whereas the higher I.Q. levels contribute - during these same pre-school levels - more nailbiting, stealing, lying and attention-demanding (correlations are low, indicating only slight trends).

In individual cases, of course, one sees evidence of strain among children whose intelligence-development fails to meet parental expectancy, and evidence of smugness and conceit among children whose parents display unwise attention to precocity.

D. Family variables*

Great variations occur in socio-economic conditions, education, family constellations and interpersonal relationships within the home; correlations between these factors and problem-incidence, however, are not high. Marital adjustment yielded more consistent and higher correlations with behavior and personality difficulties than did other family variables. Attention-demanding, temper tantrums, negativism, food finickiness, over-dependence and daytime enuresis showed more recruits from families with unhappy or difficult marital adjustment. With increasing age, tempers and negativism showed increasing relationships with marital maladjustment, during this early pre-school period. Thumbsucking and nocturnal enuresis, on the other hand, showed more recruits from happy and mutually supporting marital relationships. It is interesting to note that thumbsucking showed zero correlations with other problems, and was recruited from the favorable end of the scale on practically all family variables.

Parents agreement on discipline showed a fairly high correlation with marital adjustment, and much the same correlations with individual problems as obtained for marital adjustment.

Mother - child relationships. Fewer problems are reported or found among children of relaxed mothers than of mothers who are worrisome, uneasy or tense in their relationships to their children. Although the correlations were low they were consistent in direction for speech problems, negativism and tempers.

Education. Lower relationships were obtained with education than with intra-family adjustments. These relationships indicate more recruits from lower education levels in the case of tempers, jealous, food finickiness and diurnal enuresis. Speech problems, on the contrary, were found more often in families of greater education.

Interesting and dramatic individual exceptions to the trends were found. Stable children, with little or no evidence of behavior or personality disturbances, were found in underprivileged and disturbed homes. Poorly adjusted children were found in homes with good marital adjustment, and superior educational and economic status.

* Data collected by Clinical staff; data analysis of early pre-school period by Miss E. Pearl Bretnall.

To summarize, it was found that when a home was psychologically unfavorable in only one or two respects, the youngster could usually run his course without much disturbance, provided the parents were themselves secure enough to give the child adequate security and affection. But in homes with a large number of unfavorable aspects, the youngster was likely to give indications of being disturbed in his emotional development and habits. Affection and security between and from the parents was found to be a major need for the children.

Statistical evidence is not yet available on differentiating trends associated with sibling birth-order and sibling adjustments. We have clear evidence both clinically and statistically that insecurity of the type known as jealousy, is an important factor in other maladjustive patterns: more problems, and more severe problems occur in the jealous than the non-jealous group. Clinical opinion suggests somewhat different patterning in "only" children, the older of a pair of boys, the younger of a pair of boys, the older of a pair of girls, etc. Other things being equal, we have the clinical impression that the older of a pair of boys is less likely to have confidence and ease in intimate social relationships; the younger of a pair of boys is less likely to have confidence in his abilities. In our group "only" children* tend to show, during the first five years, more overactivity, disturbing dreams, showing off, masturbation and constipation; whereas children with sibs show more jealousy, quarreling, lying, destructiveness, and soiling difficulties. These differences are small but consistent.

E. Reputation among classmates**

Reputation among classmates - an important area of psychosocial environment - shows marked individual difference in social approval, disapproval, and notice. Some of our children obviously had the continued support of marked social approval, some carried the load of heavy disapproval, others were almost completely ignored. The findings on individual children from this type of data give important leads for any social therapeutic program at school.

* Analysis of data by M. P. Honzik and W. M. Wickham.

** Data obtained by A. Davis and L. Smith. Analyzed by M. P. Honzik.

The correlations between teachers' opinion and classmates opinion in the first three grades varied widely for different items (from $-.11$ for 'sissy' to $+.92$ for 'not many friends') pointing to the fact that the opinions of one's classmates may vary considerably from adult opinion. In general there was more agreement on detrimental than on favorable opinions.

A comparison of the correlates of being a "Real boy" or a "Real girl" in the first three grades is of interest. The Real boy is good at games ($r = .75$), popular ($r = .66$), not easily scared ($r = .66$), a good sport ($r = .65$), but is sometimes bossy ($r = .27$). The Real girl ("acts like a little lady") is not quarrelsome ($r = .70$), is a good sport ($r = .63$), sits quietly in class ($r = .58$), and is popular ($r = .57$); but she, unlike the Real boy, is not noted for being good at games ($r = .24$).

F. Clinic's effectiveness*

This material was obtained to get leads for more effective clinic techniques, and for focusing attention on what parents regarded as important areas of clinic influence. The data--obviously a composite of parental interest and the practices of this specific clinic--give useful indications of what parents are interested in, and where they feel in need of help. The data are of particular interest, because very few parents gave wholesale approval or disapproval, but were discriminatingly selective in their comments.

More than 50% of this unselected sample attributed to the clinic help on the following, in the order named: Marital adjustment, attitudes toward making the child more self-reliant, increased discussion between parents on child training, more detachment in the technique of child training, more effective methods of discipline and training, easier attitudes toward sex and sex instruction, play equipment, and techniques for handling specific problems.

* Data collected by G. V. Sheviakov and
J. W. Macfarlane; analyzed by M. P. Honzik.

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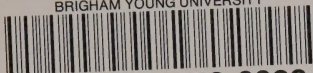
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